DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 125 697 JC 760 372

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TITLE Proceedings: Conference on Compensatory/Remedial Education (4th, February 26-27, 1976). Occasional Paper Number 26.
INSTITUTION Washington Univ., Seattle. Center for Development of Community Coll. Education.
PUB DATE Jun 76
NOTE 61p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$3.50 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Acculturation; *Adult Basic Education; Basic Skills; Community Colleges; Community Service Programs; Compensatory Education; *English (Second Language); *Humanistic Education; Indochinese; Intensive Language Courses; Interference (Language Learning); *Junior Colleges; *Second Language Learning

ABSTRACT

This report includes four papers presented at the fourth annual Conference on Compensatory/Remedial Education held by the Community College Development Center in 1976. Georgette Ioup reviews current issues in second language learning research and discusses their implications for the ESL (English as a Second Language) classroom. David Harrison describes the Downtown Study Centre established by Malaspina College (British Columbia) to provide basic skills training to adults in the community. Soren Roegdke and Greg Lynn describe the creation and operation of a special program at Clark College (Washington) to deal with the large number of Vietnamese refugees in their area; the program is tuition-free and includes intensive English training and acculturation courses. Dr. David N. McCarthy discusses the need for humanistic approaches to language arts instruction. (DC)

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PROCEEDINGS:

CONFERENCE ON COMPENSATORY/REMEDIAL EDUCATION

February 26 and 27, 1976

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Occasional Paper Number 26

Seattle, Washington

June, 1976

JC 760 372

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PREFACE (Continued)

David Harrison, along with Mr. Nigel Turner, expanded on Mr. Harrison's earlier presentation on the outreach program at Malaspina College.

To all of these presentors, as well as to all of the participants, we wish to express our thanks. Plans are underway for another Compensatory/Remedial Conference for 1977. If you wish to make any inputs regarding this conference, please send them to:

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CURRENT ISSUES IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING RESEARCH, AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ESL CLASSROOM

Georgette Ioup*

Today I'm going to discuss with you some of the recent work that has been done in the field of second language learning research and then try to determine what import this has for the ESL classroom. To begin, we might identify two questions that stand out above all others as the central issue in the field of ESL research:

> First, we want to know in what way second language learning is the same as first language acquisition and in what ways it is different. Furthermore, does a child learning a second language approach this task the same way as an adult learning a second language?
>
> Secondly, it has always seemed a puzzle that some people are able to learn a foreign language quickly and with great expertise, while others, given the same opportunity to learn, are complete failures. Is this just due to the fact that some people have a "knack" for languages and others do not, or are there other criteria? If it is a "knack" for languages that is responsible, just what exactly does this "knack" involve?

A first step in finding answers to these questions would be to identify the cognitive processes employed in acquiring language. For a long time it was believed that a behaviorist model could account for all language acquisition. This model was developed for first language acquisition by B. F. Skinner and adapted to second language learning psychology. Charles Fries and Robert Lado are two of the more prominent names. According to this theory, all language learning was said

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to be habit formation of correct linguistic behavior. The environment provided the linguistic models which the learner imitated and repeated until he or she had internalized the patterns of the language as a set of habits. Why, then, did adults have such difficulty learning a second language when children found the task to be so simple? The answer was not hard to find. Adults already had a set of language habits which caused interference in acquiring a new set of habits. Mastering a new set of verbal responses to particular language or contextual stimuli requires the extinction of the old set of responses. Where the target language and the native language differed, the structures in the native language interferred with the acquisition of parallel structures in the target language. Such a theory which accounted for differences between the acquisition of first and second language by positing structural interference was referred to as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. This theory coupled with the behaviorist account of language acquisition provided the theoretical foundations for what has become the most widely used method in second language teaching - the Audio Lingual Method (ALM). Because it is based on behaviorist principles, imitation and repetition are central components of the ALM method. A finite list of patterns (perhaps 200-300) is isolated in the target language. These are imitated, repeated and manipulated through a series of dialogues and pattern drills until they become automatic response to appropriate stimuli. When these patterns have acquired the strength of automatic responses, then one can consider that the language has been successfully mastered.

There are inadequacies in a behaviorist account of language learning. Noam Chomsky, in his now famous review of Skinner's Verbal Learning, published in 1959, was the first to attack this theory. He demonstrated that the classical notions of stimulus, response and reinforce-

ment which were developed to describe artificially learned behavior in laboratory animals became vacuous when extended to a description of the complexities of language acquisition. As psychologists and linguists began a systematic and more penetrating investigation of linguistic structure and acquisition, the shortcomings of a behaviorist theory became obvious. Language use is creative. Children speak and comprehend sentences they have never encountered before. Pattern and generalization, notions developed by behaviorists to account for creativity in language, provide an inadequate analysis. In the first place, there are just too many patterns to be accounted for. As modern linguistics has shown, there are more patterns in language then there are seconds in a lifetime. Secondly, the appropriate rule governed behavior characterizing a given structure cannot be captured by a simple pattern. More than one level of linguistic description is needed to adequately analyze a given sentence. Each linguistic description must contain both a superficial, that is surface analysis, and a deeper, more remote analysis which corresponds more closely to the meaning of the utterance. The child must be able to abstract this underlying linguistic structure from the data and incorporate it into his or her internal grammar. There is no way a child can imitate or repeat this abstract underlying structure. The child must form strategies and hypotheses as to the nature of the linguistic system, constantly revising the hypotheses as the data being perceived become more sophisticated.

There are other weak spots in a behaviorist, habit formation theory. The utterances children produce are seldom like the sentences heard in the adult model. How can the child be imitating structures and patterns encountered in the environment? It has become obvious that the child constructs a grammar of his or her own, and it is this grammar which pro-

duces the sentences unique to child language. Research has shown us that children progress through identical stages as they develop adult speech. The stages are universal and have been attested in the acquisition data of children from many languages. Yet certainly the environments must be quite diverse from culture to culture and from one child to another. The types of stimuli and reinforcement are unique to each child. This would predict a behavioral model that language learning would follow individual paths. But, as we noted above, the opposite is the case.

The more research that is being done on first language acquisition, the more we discover that behaviorism is not a feasible theory, that children are not imitating patterns and forming good language habits, but that they are abstracting from the data and formulating their own hypotheses about the rules underlying language use. We infer to the child an active, cognitive process, not passive, externally controlled behavior. In a behaviorist habit formation theory, the model, be it the parent or the teacher, is the one who shapes the language learning process by providing the stimuli and the appropriate reinforcements. In a cognitive theory of language acquisition, the learner, be it child or adult, assumes the initiative and controls the learning process. She or he selects the material to be analyzed from a wide range of data and forms hypotheses about it.

Let us now turn to second language acquisition. Is a second language learned through habit formation? What role does interference play in acquiring a second language? Why is it that adults seem to find the task more difficult than children? Recent studies in the psychology of second language learning have been addressing themselves to these very questions.

CURRENT ISSUES IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING RESEARCH,
AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ESL CLASSROOM

Georgette Ioup

The modern investigation of the cognitive processes underlying second language acquisition began with Eric Lenneberg who, in 1967, published his monumental work, The Biological Foundations of Language. In this book he presents evidence to suggest that human beings have a critical period for language acquisition. What do we mean by a critical period? The critical period refers to a stage in development at which time acquisition of a given process is possible. It cannot be achieved before or after that time. For example, baby chicks imprint (that is, pick an object to follow during early development) in the first few weeks after birth. If they are not able to do it then, then they can't be trained to do it later and they develop abnormal behavior. With respect to human beings, Lenneberg proposes that the critical period for language acquisition ends at puberty, implying that our innate language acquisition device ceases to function at this stage in our lives. Is there any explanation for why our language acquisition device would cease to function at this time?

Lenneberg hypothesizes that this termination of human language learning ability can be correlated with the completion of lateralization in the human brain whereby one hemisphere is specialized for language and linear operation and the other is specialized for spatial and Gestalt relations. To support his hypothesis that the process of hemisphere specialization is complete at puberty, he presents evidence from cases of brain damage which resulted in aphasia, the term used to describe any language malfunction due to cerebral lesions. He observed that left hemisphere damage in normal right handed individuals gave rise to different language aberrations in children and adults. Children normally suffered a temporary loss of language, but were able to regain normal control of language through a slow gradual process of language acquisition much like their original language acquisition. The damaged hemisphere no longer

functioned as the center of language, this task being shifted to the healthy right hemisphere. Adult aphasics manifested a quite different recovery process. Either they regained complete facility in language very rapidly or they retained permanent signs of impairment.

The development of language in retarded children provides further support to the critical period hypothesis. Down syndrome children acquire language more slowly than normal children. At puberty their language development stops. The stage to which they have arrived at this point will remain their most advanced developmental stage throughout their lives.

What predictions for second language learning follow from the critical period hypothesis? If the language learning ability terminates at puberty, then the hypothesis predicts that children learning a second language will employ the same types of processes in accomplishing this undertaking as children learning a first language. After the close of the critical period, however, language learning should proceed in a very different manner. Is there any experimental evidence which either bears out or refutes these predictions? Recently, Heidi Dulay and Marina Burt (1974) replicated research conducted by Roger Brown on children's first language acquisition with children learning a second language. Roger Brown attempted to ascertain the order of acquisition of certain function words in English. He was able to establish a rank ordering of twelve function words as the result of a longitudinal study of three children acquiring English as a first language. Dulay and Burt conducted a cross-sectional study of 115 children in the process of acquiring English as a second language. Half of the children were Spanish speaking and half were Chinese. They ranged in age from six to eight. Dulay and Burt were asking two questions. Did children learning English as a second language acquire functions words in a manner similar to children learning English as a first language?

Secondly, was there any difference between the way Spanish speaking children and Chinese speaking children performed in the study? That is, was there any indication that interference from their native language shaped their acquisition process?

Their findings showed that the children from both languages followed the same invariant difficulty ordering in acquiring the function words tested. The English copula and plural morpheme, for example, appeared at the same point in the sequence for both language groups, despite the fact that the Chinese language doesn't express the copula while the Spanish language does; and the Spanish plural is formed in exactly the same manner as the English plural while in Chinese the noun is not even marked for number. One would expect that if the children were using their native languages to guide them in their acquisition of English, the plurals would appear quite early for the Spanish speaking children and much later for the the Chinese speaking children. But for both groups the two morphemes occur about midway through the sequence. Interferences does not seem to be influencing their acquisition of these particular morphemes. The theory of contrastive analysis predicts that Spanish children would experience positive transfer with regard to the plural and would produce them correctly from the beginning in their attempts to speak English. A theory of habit formation and interference can in no way explain the similarity in difficulty ordering for these two very different language groups.

It appears from this study that second language learning children are employing the same types of strategies and hypothesis testing that first language learners employ. The two language groups approach the English data in the same fashion. They abstract rules and form hypotheses appropriate to their level of acquisition, and as they become more sophisticated in the language, they revise their hypotheses until the point

where they match the native speaker's rule governed language behavior. Universal cognitive strategies appear to be the basis for the child's organization of a target language. It is the system of the target language rather than the system of the native language that guies the acquisition process.

Evidence indicates that children learning a second language employ the same cognitive mechanisms as children learni g a first language. What about adults? Is it the target language system or the native language system which guides their acquisition process? Bailey, Madden and Krashen in 1975 attempted to replicate with adults Dulay and Burt's findings. They tested 73 adults ranging in age from 17 to 55 who were studying English at Queens College in New York City. Some of the subjects were foreign students who had come to this country on a temporary basis to study. Others were immigrants who had selected to live in the U.S. indefinitely. They exhibited different levels of proficiency in English. The subjects were divided into two groups, the Spanish speakers and the non-Spanish speakers, comprising 11 languages: Greek, Persian, Italian, Turkish, Japanese, Chinese, Thai, Afghan, Hebrew, Arabic and Vietnamese.

The acquisition sequence of the morphemes tested were rank ordered for the two groups. The orderings were correlated for both groups and a significant correlation was found. Therefore, adults learning English as a second language will show agreement with each other on the relative difficulty of functions words in English irrespective of their native language background, suggesting that interference is not a factor in this acquisition process. The data for the two groups was combined and one invariant ordering was produced. This was then correlated with the ranking done by Dulay and Burt with children, and there was again found to be a significant correlation between the two relative difficulty orderings.

This finding suggests that adults are utilizing the same cognitive strategies in abstracting rules from the data. The acquisition process of these functions words proceeds at its own pace regardless of the age of the second language learner, the native language background or the learning environment. Interference and novel habit formation are as insignificant in explaining this aspect of adult learning as they are in explaining similar aspects of child language learning.

How did an interference theory initially develop? The original studies which supported transfer from the native language concentrated almost exclusively on the phonological systems of the languages investigated. Evidence does seem to indicate that negative transfer exists when adults attempt to master the sound system of a foreign language. Very little work has been done, however, on the extent of syntactic or semantic interference in second language learning. Usually only a few isolated examples are presented as evidence of syntactic interference. These examples are often subject to many interpretations. For example, if one considered only data from Chinese speakers attempting to learn English and observed that they had difficulty expressing the plural, one might conclude that here, indeed, was a case of interference since the Chinese language does not mark nouns for number. However, no data would have been presented to ascertain whether speakers of other languages where number is marked also had difficulty expressing the plural in English. If this were the case, as both the Dulay and Burt study and the Bailey, Madden and Krashen study demonstrate, then we must attribute the relative difficulty in acquisition of this structure to intralingual, rather than interlingual causes.

In what ways, then, do the differences between child and adult second language learning manifest themselves? The cognitive strategies employed

by the two groups to decode and internalize the data appear to be identical. Krashen and Seliger in a recent study (in press) hypothesize that children employ these strategies in an unconscious manner while adults must be consciously aware of the rules they are formulating. In adolescents, puberty marks the onset of the cognitive stage of formal operations whereby the individual is capable of conscious abstract thought and hypothesis formation and testing. Having developed to this stage post-pubescent language learners may require conscious awareness of the logical structures underlying formal learning situations. It may, therefore, be necessary for adults to be consciously taught a foreign language while children, on the other hand, are quite capable of acquiring it informally. To test this hypothesis, Krashen and Seliger collected data on students studying English as a second language at Queens College in New York City. For each subject they obtained information on years of formal study of English, length of stay in an English speaking country and a measure of their proficiency in English. They then matched pairs for amount of formal instruction and compared their length of stay in an English speaking country to determine if exposure alone accounted for the degree of proficiency in English. Exposure was seen to have no significant effect on degree of proficiency. That is, those with more exposure to English due to length of stay in an English speaking country did not consistently manifest a higher degree of proficiency in English. Pairs were then matched for length of stay in an English speaking country and compared for amount of formal instruction. In a significant number of cases, more instruction meant greater proficiency. It can be tentatively concluded that for adult second language learners formal instruction is beneficial in that it has a more consistent effect on second language proficiency than exposure.

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Georgette Ioup

Why should formal instruction be important for an adult learning a second language? What are some of the essential ways in which formal instruction alters the language learning situation? In an informal language learning situation there is:

1) no sequencing of the data. The learner processes from the beginning both complex and elementary constructions.
2) no isolation of structures. Learners must perceive and isolate structures from the data for themselves.
3) no meaningful error correction. Randomly selected errors may be corrected occasionally, but in general the speech of the learner is scanned by the listener for meaning, not for accuracy.

However, in formal instruction there is:

1) isolation of the structures, presenting them one at a time to be acquired.
2) a sequencing of the material presented according to some measure of difficulty.
3) feedback from the instructor on error identification and correction.

The features I have just listed are common to all known teaching methods. They do not seem to be necessary for language acquisition before puberty. These features may be just those necessary for adult learning to compensate for a weakened language acquisition device after puberty. Note that these features of formal instruction are available to a well-motivated adult outside the language classroom through the use of dictionaries, grammar books and helpful friends. In fact, it might be the case that a highly motivated adult in an informal situation will out-perform less motivated students attending class.

What relevance does the research I have just presented have for the ESL classroom? We can draw three conclusions. First, as I have just re.ted, formal instruction is beneficial to the adult language learner. Its value in second language acquisition among children has not been ascertained. After establishing that formal instruction is advantageous to the adult, we can turn our attention to the type of instruction offered in the classroom. The Audio-Lingual Method, based as it is on a behaviorist theory of language acquisition, cannot be valid. In place of rote learning and meaningless repetition and manipulation we must substitute situational learning where language is learned in meaningful contexts. Learners should gain conscious control of the phonological, lexical and syntactic patterns functioning in the second language. Rule formation should be an active process of testing and re-evaluating hypotheses. When drilling, the students' attention should be drawn to the structure being practiced rather than away from it. We can conclude that rearrangement drills are better than repetition drills. Meaningful exercises are more beneficial than exercises which are devoid of contextual relevancy.

John Carroll, the noted language psychologist, echoed these suggestions in a recent article discussing the contributions of psychological theory and educational research to the teaching of foreign languages (1965). The following are the facts he lists which follow from the research he investigates (p. 280):

1) contrasting structures is better than frequent repetition of a single structure.
2) meaningful material is easier to learn than meaningless material.
3) other things being equal - materials presented visually are

easier to learn than materials presented orally.

4) conscious attention to and understanding of the critical features of a skill facilitates learning of it.

5) the more kinds of associations made to an item, the better it is learned and retained. A variety of modalities and situations will facilitate the learning process.

It is important to note that by advocating conscious control of rule learning, I am not calling for a return to the old grammar-translation type teaching methods where the target language was only talked about, but never actually spoken. The ALM made some essential contributions to language teaching methodology when it switched the emphasis in the classroom to speaking in the target language. Certainly acquiring the ability to speak is our ultimate goal. What I am advocating is that the teacher plan and structure his or her class in such a way as to permit the student to take the initiative in learning. To do so in a successful way requires imaginative, well thought out lesson plans by the teacher.

We have discussed the role of formal instruction and the type of formal instruction, now let us turn our attention to the training of the instructor. As we have noted above, there does not seem to be conclusive evidence that interference is operating except in the phonological realm. Any other interference that we have found appears to be located at a very abstract level. It might involve a preference for one sentential style over another, the avoidance or overuse of certain structures as a result of their frequency of occurrence in the native language, or transferring certain perceptual strategies which operate in the native language into the target language where they are inapplicable. To deal with these types of interference, one needs quite a sophisticated lin-

guistic knowledge of both languages involved. However, the need to deal with such interference would occur only at very advanced teaching levels, if at all. Therefore, in the training of ESL teachers, it is not as crucial to give training in the various languages of perceptive students. In fact, fluency in the native language might even hamper classroom progress in an ESL setting because there is always a temptation to resort to the native language in classroom discussion if communication in the target language gets "bogged down." Since so many of the students' errors result from intralingual causes, then a teacher would be better prepared having acquired a good understanding of the intricate rule structures of the target language. It is certainly the case that the more the instructor comprehends the structural organization of the target language, the more he or she will be able to assist the student to actively form and test rule hypotheses and to progress from one level to another.

Now that we have investigated our first question dealing with the differences between first and second language acquisition and between child and adult second language learning, we can focus attention on the second question that was raised--the puzzle of why some people are able to learn a foreign language so quickly and easily, while other people experience a great deal of difficulty? Is an aptitude for acquiring languages the only factor involved? Questions such as these have been raised and investigated by researchers at McGill University in Montreal, led by the social psychologists Wallace Lambert and Richard Gardner. John Carroll, in a 1962 paper suggested that success in second language learning varies as a function of three learner criteria: language aptitude, general intelligence and motivation, and two instructional variables: the opportunity the student has for learning, and the adequacy of presentation of the material to be learned. Gardner and Lambert determined to

hold the instructional variables constant and investigate the degree to which the three learner characteristics contribute to successful second language learning. Therefore, the sample selected for study were necessarily students who were members of the same school setting. The instructional variables were minimally differentiated in each of their studies. The research began in Montreal with young English speaking children who were attempting to become bilingual in French by entering a total immersion program of French instruction from their earliest school years. Their progress in learning French was monitored over the course of eight years and during that time they were tested frequently to determine such factors as their proficiency in French, their individual language aptitude and general intelligence, their attitudes toward their own culture and toward the target language culture and their degree of motivation and their type of motivation. In addition, their families were questioned to determine their attitude toward their children's study of French and toward the French culture in general.

Categories of attitude and motivation were identified. Motivation can orient itself in two directions. If the learner is motivated to learn the second language because its knowledge will lead to social recognition or economic advancement, the motivation is said to be instrumental in character. If the learner is motivated by a desire to identify with the culture and customs of the members of the target language society, in short to become one of them, that type of motivation is said to be integrative in character. With respect to attitudes, four variables were measured: anomie, ethnocentrism, authoritarianism and preference for the native culture over the target culture. Anomie is characterized by feelings of alienation and dissatisfaction with one's own cultural group, a sense of not belonging. Ethnocentrism refers to a belief that

one's own cultural group is superior and that other cultural groups are inferior and even suspect. Authoritarianism measures the degree to which one believes in strict authority and rigid morality and is characterized by antidemocratic sentiments.

Attitudes of the parents as well as the language learners figured into this study. For each group studied, close to 50 variables were correlated in an attempt to determine what had a positive or negative influence on achievement in language learning. In this, as in previous studies, language aptitude was a good predictor of achievement in the classroom, yet there were many cased in all the studies where the two did not correlate well at all. Students with considerable language aptitude would perform quite poorly in the classroom. There were other cases where students with only moderate language aptitude were still able to achieve a high level of proficiency in the second language. Motivation has always been considered to be the distinguishing factor. The Montreal studies attempted to determine exactly which types of motivation and attitudinal dispositions contributed to success.

The findings of their research have permitted Gardner and Lambert to begin to construct a psychosociological theory of second language learning. Their theory maintains that a successful learner of a second language will be one who is psychologically prepared to accept various aspects of behavior which characterize members of another cultural and linguistic group. It is the learner's attitudes toward the members of the other group that are believed to determine the relative degree of success in acquiring a second language. Even the motivation to learn the new language is thought to be determined by one's attitude toward the other group. It is recognized that many different attitudes may underlie a positive degree of motivation. Some may be anxious to become

members of another culture because of dissatisfactions experienced in their own culture, others may possess a positive feeling toward their own culture but may be genuinely interested in learning more about other cultures and peoples. Still others may be motivated to move into another culture as one means of achieving success. However, the more immersed the learners become in the new culture as they gain proficiency in the second language, the more they may find that their own cultural identity is becoming lost. Feelings of social uncertainty and dissatisfaction which are common in immigrants and bilinguals may also develop in serious students of a second language.

In the Montreal study, French achievement was found to be dependent upon both aptitude and intelligence and a sympathetic orientation toward the other culture. Students who possessed an integrative orientation toward acquiring French showed more success than those who were instrumentally oriented. Integrative motivation was an especially important factor in the development of communicative skills in French which in some instances is not correlated with classroom proficiency in the language. It was found that an integrative orientation correlated negatively with an authoritarian, anti-democratic ideology, as well as an ethnocentric disposition. The one attitude appeared to be the converse of the others, the latter being detrimental to achievement in languages. The information gathered about the parents' attitudes toward the French community and toward their child's participation in the language learning program indicated that the student's orientation probably developed at home. Students with an integrative disposition to learn French came from families possessing a similar disposition. Students with instrumental motivation had been encouraged by their parents to acquire French for practical reasons. The direction of the students' motivation appeared

to depend on the disposition of the parents. Parents with positive attitudes toward the French community more actively encouraged their children to learn French than did parents with less favorable attitudes. This may explain why students with an integrative orientation were more successful in the Montreal study than students with an instrumental orientation.

The Montreal study was first extended to American settings and then to the Philippines. The results of the American studies reaffirmed the findings of the Montreal study. Three language learning environments were examined in the United States to determine if correlations established in the Montreal setting were valid when extended to other settings. The three groups investigated in the United States all consisted of Americans learning French at the secondary level. Two of the groups were bicultural showing some degree of bilingualism, as well, but in a non-standard dialect of French. The settings were Maine and Louisiana where there are substantial populations of French-Americans. The third group was a typical sample of American youth residing in a metropolitan area who were exposed to French for the first time in secondary school. Measures of proficiency were obtained in both French and English.

Again, the attitude of the language learners toward the French ethnolinguistic group and toward the American way of life influenced their linguistic progress in both French and English. Students who are highly ethnocentric and hostile toward second language culture made virtually no progress in acquiring any aspects of the second or foreign language. Such students seem unwilling to adjust their own response systems to assimilate a new linguistic outlook. The learner, to be successful in these settings must be willing to identify with members of the other ethnolinguistic group. However, it was found that strong ethnocentric attitudes were no guarantee of achievement in one's own native language.

A strong pro-American outlook did not assure proficiency in English. In examining the French-Americans, it was the students who were most comfortable with both parts of their cultural and linguistic heritage who were best prepared psychologically to become full bilinguals.

These findings are important in evaluating the position of linguistic minority groups in our country. Often the native culture and mother-tongue are suppressed in hopes that the children will adapt more easily to the American way of life. However, it seems that the minority students who will be most successful come from environments where both cultures are elevated to positions of importance. It does not appear that a minority group's feelings of alienation can be eliminated by suppressing one of the two competing cultures. The American studies revealed that French-American adolescents who exhibited a strong preference for either the American or the French way of life, were linguistically deficient in one of the two languages. Many displayed an inadequacy in both languages. Gardner and Lambert conclude that a positive bilingual/bicultural approach in education will contribute most in assisting ethnic minorities to develop within an American setting.

The study was extended to a Philippine context where the second language being acquired was one of a dominant culture whose acquisition was essential for advancement within the society. The second language being studied was English. It rarely functioned as a home language, but was the medium of instruction in the school system. Survival in the Philippine society beyond a more subsistence existence depended crucially on the acquisition of English. In this setting, Gardner and Lambert found that the type of motivation which correlated most highly with achievement in English was an instrumental orientation, though an integrative disposition showed positive correlative as well. Gardner and

Lambert realized that when there is an urgency in the need to acquire the second language, as is the case in the Philippines and with ethnic minorities in our country, an instrumental, as well as an integrative orientation must be cultivated. The Philippine study revealed that students from families with a strong disposition to either the Filipino or the American culture, to the exclusion of the other group perform most poorly in both their vernacular and in English. Minority groups or nationalities who import another language need not develop an integrative identification with the dominant group. This disposition was necessary only when the language being learned was not one that is necessary to survival. A recognition of the need to acquire the dominant language, that is, an instrumental orientation, coupled with an absence of strong negative feelings toward the dominant culture to guarantee progress in learning the second language. A bilingual/bicultural school setting where the teachers are members of one's own culture group and who can instill a feeling of pride and confidence in the minority linguistic and cultural identity while at the same time offering quality instruction in the dominant language may be the best guarantee of developing successful bilinguals.

Many of the hostilities minorities have exhibited toward the dominant culture result from the condescending and prejudicial attitudes the dominant culture expresses toward their ethnic groups. Until these negative attitudes are eradicated from our society, the minorities will always be hampered in their attempts to develop a comfortable place within our system. Therefore, it is essential that the schools pay particular attention to developing an appreciation of the minority culture among members of the dominant culture as well as among members of the minority ethnic groups. More teachers who are members of the ethnic minorities are needed to assist in developing new attitudes toward the minority culture. These

teachers are especially important as models for the minority groups. It is not as important that the teachers be fully bilingual as it is that they be able to identify with the students and instill in them feelings of pride toward their culture and a desire to learn the language of the dominant culture.

The Philippine and American studies showed us that different attitudes are factors in success when the language being learned is that of the dominant culture rather than of a minority culture. However, in both situations, an absence of strong ethnocentric feelings and hostility toward the second language culture is required. The successful learners in all cases were the ones who expressed positive feelings toward the other culture, and if we are able to cultivate such attitudes in our students, as well as instilling a pride in their national identity, we will aid them in becoming better language learners.

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DOWNTOWN STUDY CENTRE

A Community Focus for Adult Basic Education

David Harrison*

In British Columbia, we are still neophytes in the community college movement (Malaspina opened in 1969); and while courses and programs in Adult Basic Education have been around in this area for a longer time, they are only recently being taken under the wing of the community colleges. The Malaspina College basic skills program has some elements in it, which I expect will be very familiar to you--such as the GED and ESL but also, I hope, has other elements, in particular our Downtown Study Centre, which puts some old ideas together in a new way.

Malaspina College itself opened in 1969, offering a core curriculum of first and second year transfer degree courses plus a few one or two year business and technology programs. It was not until 1974 that two other educational institutions--a provincial vocational training school and the continuing (adult) education division of the school boards--were brought together to form what is now a comprehensive community college with about 1500 full time students. Both the vocational school and the continuing education division had existed successfully in the community before the arrival of the college. Each had developed its own mix of basic skills courses to meet local appetites. When these various parts of the college came together two years ago, and I was appointed Basic Skills Coordinator, we seemed to have two major options:

1. Detach and Develop all those courses and services that could be considered 'basic skills'. The logical outcome of this option would probably be to become a separate and

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possibly, isolated department of the college. It might have its own administrator-chairman, its own budget and its own identity.

2. Integrate the various courses and services into a loose 'federation' of courses, services and people. Such a federation would have--perhaps like Canada--a unifying principle. In this case, the common aim is to meet the developmental needs of all students in the field of basic skills improvement. It would have an inter-departmental coordinator, a small budget for 'central' services, and would allow the various elements of the program to have rather different identities and emphases.

Well, you may already have anticipated that we chose the second option, and it seems to be working. Perhaps the way our federation works will become clearer as I go into some specifics.

The first element in the overall Basic Skills Program is the BTSD (Basic Training for Skills Development), a full-time academic upgrading program in vocational division. Its features are:

* Full-time 6 x 5 x 5 (6 hrs./day), 5 days/week, up to 5 months)
* Math, Science and English upgrading with emphasis on needs for adults (17+) preparing for vocational training or jobs.
* Certification at Grade 8, 10 or 12 equivalency.
* Monthly, continuous intake for fee-payers and Manpower-sponsored students.
* Full-time instructors on the core campus at Nanaimo, with part-time contract instructors for short-term BTSD in branch campuses.

The second element is the College Foundation program, which provides a wide range of 'college-level' developmental courses to students who are enrolled in transfer or college diploma programs. The main features of

this version of the 'college prep' plan are:

* Full-time (non-transfer credits apply toward any college diploma)

  OR part-time, either as supplement to an existing course of studies such as a degree program, or as preparation for work at that level

* Courses offered through the academic departments of the college using regular department faculty and budget

* Examples: Writing Skills Improvement, Developmental Reading, Study Skills, Introduction to Social Science, Introductory College Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry.

* Starting dates in September and January.

The third element is also presently aligned to the college-level student. It is the Study Skills Centre, which provides a range of one-to-one tutorials, 'how to study' materials and skills mini-courses to students who may not be able, ready or willing to study in a full-time upgrading program such as BTSD, nor to benefit from the College Foundation work. The courses we offer under Continuing Education thus include:

* GED Refresher in Math and English

* English as a Second Language - at Basic and Intermediate levels

* Secondary School Completion (such as Math 11-12, English 12)

* Metric System

  and this year in one community only as a trial run, the Downtown Study Center. It is hoped to adapt the Study Centre model eventually to the other branch campus communities.

Two other people work across division lines. They are the Basic Skills Advisor (a paraprofessional) and the Basic Skills Co-ordinator. The Basic Skills Advisor's job, essentially, is to provide information and guidance to the hundreds of people who start with the simple question 'How do I upgrade my education?' She helps the people take an inventory

of their current level of education, look ahead to longer-term goals, ambitions and even fantasies, and helps them define the alternative ways to proceed. Clearly, she works very closely with resource people in many other sectors of the community including college counsellors, manpower counsellors, social workers and college faculty.

The job of the Basic Skills Co-ordinator is to link together these elements of the instructional system in order to provide the right kind of developmental skills education, at the right time, in the best medium, to any student in the college community.

So much for the structure. I would like to change the emphasis now as I describe the Downtown Study Centre from the perspective of the 'less educated' adult in the community.

A profile of the Greater Nanaimo population 'over 15 and out of school' showed that in 1971, about 5.4% of the 31,850 had an education of less than grade 5, an additional 23.1% had grade 5-8 education, and a further 23.8% had grade 10. Many of these people left school 15 or 20 years ago, when employers were not so fussy about whether you had grade 10 or 12 before letting you within interview distance of a job. This group also includes many adults who are:

* Employed and not available for full-time study.
* People like logging, fishing, hotel and hospital workers who live their lives on a rotating shift basis and are unable to attend conventional classes meeting at regular times.
* Temporarily unemployed, through seasonal work, or strikes or lockouts (for we are also a heavily unionized town).
* People on long 'waiting lists' at Manpower or vocational school, waiting for up to a year for vocational training courses.
* Those with a physical handicap that keeps them off work, but who <u>are</u> available for study.

* People who are afraid of approaching anything that looks like a college...or another social agency that looks like another social agency.
* Women, encouraged perhaps by the spirit and afterglow of International Women's Year, but discouraged by feelings of inadequacy about themselves - '15 years out of school and then only a grade 9 or 10.'

So many of these pepole, we felt, would take advantage of a place where they could, AT ANY TIME OF THE YEAR:

* get information and advice on how to upgrade their basic education
* establish what they need in basic education credentials or skills
* start on a course of part-time study within a week
* study at their own level and at their own pace
* fit in study times by morning, afternoon or evening shifts, to correspond with their own weekly life schedules
* start and quit when they want and return when they need us again

To try and cater to some of these people and to answer some of their needs, we opened our Downtown Study Centre--with two more instructors and an advisor, two classrooms and an information-reception area. We have presently 75 part-time students.

We share our shopping mall with a smoke shop and a pet store, with people who sell vacuum cleaners or Hammond organs, with a Bible bookstore and a pizza parlour; and there's a laundromat where you can throw your clothes in the dryer while you come upstairs and put your head in the think tank.

Our attitude is that the courses belong to the students, so we feel free to adapt them in any way we can, to what our adult students tell us they need. Yes, it is difficult to live up to our promise of letting

people go their own pace: and to have 9 or 10 people all at different levels in the same classroom. But the one-room schoolhouse was no picnic either, and it seems that it may not be such a bad model after all for this kind of learning.

But what of the adult student who still can't get into the Centre (through physical handicap, or baby-sitter problems) or who isn't even yet ready for a class at all in a public place (like the adult non-reader who's hidden his secret all these years), or the shift-worker off the ferry-boat who needs ESL conversation practice on afternoons this week, and mornings next week? For these students we use three 'community tutors' who become our outreach workers. Employed at lowly wages on a 6-month grant, they have a case load of about 20 students.

In a further outreach movement, we are training a small volunteer army of tutors to take courses to people. Somewhat along the lines of the adult literacy campaign now organized in Britain by the British Association of Settlements, and using the simple, basic materials approach of the Literacy Volunteers of America, we have put together a community literacy program. The Centre provides for initial contact and assessment of students, a remedial reading instructor provides training workshops, a literacy co-ordinator matches students and tutors, and the Centre provides resource material and continuity.

The program is in its early days. We have much to learn from others in the Northwest and elsewhere who have had programs such as these going on for some time and could warn us, perhaps of some of the possible pitfalls.

To summarize a little about the Downtown Study Centre: just what is unique about it? I feel it is, for our community, a unique focus for Adult Basic Education. Under the same roof--and not an ivy-covered insti-

tutional one--a person can drop in and find information, assessment, advice, referrals--and a course that starts next Monday.

I wish to conclude with some concerns that we are dealing with at the present time:

1. How do we continue to let the public know we're here?
2. How do we let the referral agencies know what we're trying to do?
3. How do we measure our success--or failure?
4. Can we really individualize courses, yet at the same time provide for group learning and human interaction?
5. Materials: how can we keep costs down and humanity high?
6. Do we really have to invent the wheel? Aren't there some published materials that really work for the adult--or do we have to keep writing and taping our own?
7. How long will our retreads last? If we've failed the adult student again, will this be the last time?
8. Isn't ABE more than the 3R's? What about Life Skills, Consumer Education, Interpersonal Communication and Philosophy for (or by) Longshoremen?
9. So we <u>can</u> train a volunteer army--but how effective will be their teaching; and are we using them because it's the best idea--or because they're so cheap?
10. If Downtown Study Centre works, how about small community Village or Neighborhood Study Centres?

TƯƠNG-LAI

(The Future)

The Clark College
Southeast Asian Program

Søren Roegdke*
Greg Lynn

EXODUS

At the end of the Viet Nam conflict, many Americans sighed with relief. Then people from all levels of American life centered their attention on the fates of the South Vietnamese who had been our comrades-in-arms. On their part, the Vietnamese envisioned a life of hard bondage and rigorous service to a Communist regime. This bitter life contrasted starkly with the tales of bright freedom in the United States told by departing GI's. The choice was clear: many Vietnamese left the country.

Back in America, religious groups, volunteer agencies, and strong-willed individuals began the task of receiving the waves of refugees who were arriving by the thousands. This effort was the beginning of a long-term American commitment to the resettlement of South East Asian refugees.

RESETTLEMENT

Two days after the U.S. troop pullout, the first family of refugees arrived in Clark County. Others destined for resettlement in the same area were detained at resettlement camps, while still others were floundering at sea off the coast of Viet Nam, waiting for death or salvation.

By early summer, over 4,000 refugees were located in the State of Washington (according to the Department of Emergency Services' Interagency

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Task Force.) Of these, 1,500 could be identified by address, which left more than 1,900 identified only by county and 600 or more with their residence unknown. Add to these figures the untabulated number of refugees who were migrating to Washington from other states, and you'll begin to comprehend the scope of a nationwide problem on a statewide level.

COMPLICATIONS

Almost immediately, other problems began to crop up. Most of these problems had been predicted by government officials who said they were already acting upon them. However, the wheels of government turn slowly. Recognizing the scope of the Vietnamese problems to come, Representative Hal Zimmerman wrote this letter to the governor of Washington:

> "I have repeatedly requested some kind of consideration for this problem solution. So far, I have been less than impressed with bureaucratic means of dealing with what has to be considered a crisis of a specialized handicap, namely, inability to deal in the language of this country. These people want to remove themselves from public assistance and want to become part of the culture on their own. We keep frustrating them by our inability, through government or any other means, to solve the problem."

While the government officials were contemplating action, refugees were arriving in Clark County. Sponsors, churchgroups and other agencies responsible for their welfare gradually became aware of the tremendous difficulty the Vietnamese people faced by sharing and experiencing their problems. They found that our agencies were simply not established to meet the Vietnamese needs. Our rules and regulations do not always apply to someone who cannot use the language. For example, how does one get a job or apply for welfare when he cannot speak, read, or write English? How does he apply for a driver's license when he must take a complex

test requiring extensive English and the understanding of complex concepts? Whose car does he use to learn to drive on the American highways? How does he learn English when there are neither English programs set up to cope with his problems, nor even books published which might facilitate the teaching of English by individuals? How does he find a house to live in? Where does he go for medical and dental help? With these problems heaped on their backs, two-hundred seventy-five Vietnamese, Cambodian, and Laotian refugees had arrived at Clark College by September 1, 1975.

Clark College encountered the refugee problem during Fall Quarter registration. Twenty-five Vietnamese and Cambodian students tried to register for regular college classes. Because they could neither read, write, speak nor understand English, there was no way that they could fill out the necessary forms or complete the complicated registration process. The result was both humorous and frustrating. The registration staff could not even tell them to delay registration until there was an interpretor. Twenty or so students stood in registration lines for an entire day.

After considering the student's needs, the Clark College administration decided to create a special program for the refugees. No tuition would be required for the program, which would entail intensive English and acculturation. Since there were no state or federal funds available for such a program, the ESL and Adult Basic Education budgets were tapped for enough money to pay a skeleton staff. A director and teacher were hired, and the program started.

To provide for the needs of the refugees, the program had to be both flexible and practical. The new Clark College staff created a program which would serve the Vietnamese community in two areas. First there

would be an intensive English program designed to teach the basic elements of speaking, reading, writing and thinking in English as quickly as possible. Second, there would be an area of cultural impact which would attempt to teach the Vietnamese how American institutions functioned, and how to cope with them.

A philosophy gradually grew from the Clark College Southeast Asian Program which is stated as follows:

> The purpose of the Southeast Asian Educational Program at Clark College is to teach the Vietnamese people in the Clark County area the English language and communication skills necessary to function effectively within the society, to acquaint them with American values and customs, and to familiarize them with our social and economic processes so that they can lead productive lives and contribute their talents to our community. To initiate these students into the American society within such a wide spectrum as quickly and smoothly as possible, we have developed an intensive program which encompasses their communicative and cultural needs. This program, of course, requires financial support, resource materials, and a competent staff. We hope that state and federal funds are forthcoming so that we might continue this program as long as there is a Vietnamese resettlement problem. Our classes will meet six hours a day, five days a week, and offer the following subjects:

Intensive English	Cultural Impact
Listening English	American Institutions
Speaking English	Institutional Function
Writing English	Survival Skills
Reading English	Economic Procedures
	American Social Structures
	American Social Customs

To alert the Southeast Asian community that Clark College was now going to offer a special program for refugees, we sent a copy of the following letter to every Southeast Asian family in Clark County. Since many of them could neither speak nor read English, we had it translated into

TƯƠNG-LAI
Søren Roegdke
Greg Lynn

Vietnamese.

Clark College is offering an intensive language and orientation class especially for Vietnamese students who are new to the United States. The class will meet from 9:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m. Monday through Friday beginning September 29. There will be classes in writing, speaking and reading English as well as classes in American history and culture designed to help make the transition from the Vietnamese way of life to the American way of life easier. All Vietnamese students who are interested in this program should contact the teacher, Soren Roegdke at the Learning Center, Clark College, Vancouver, WA. 98663. Phone 694-6521, Ext. 353.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Soren Roegdke
Instructor

STAFF

Because of our very limited funds, we designed the teaching assignments to encompass at least three separate language levels for six hours day. This was necessary if we were to be effective in our classes. We knew that some of our students would be professional people with a knowledge of some English and French, and we knew from our registration experience that some would be illiterate in all languages. The problem, of course, was how to handle at least thirty diversified students in three separate classes for six hours a day. At this time our staff consisted of one instructor, who doubled as director, hired for four hours a day, and a second instructor hired for two hours. This was all the budget could afford. The answer, obviously was the Clark College Tutoring Program.

TUONG-LAI
Søren Roegdke
Greg Lynn

TUTORING

Fall Quarter 1974, Annette Lambson, Director of the Learning Center at Clark College, began a tutoring program for those students who needed help in a specific subject area or a class. To participate in this program each student was required to tutor one student, or several, twenty hours a quarter for each unit of credit in Tutoring 285. This credit was transferable and earned within the vocational or academic area in which each student tutored. For instance, if a student tutored math for forty hours during the quarter, he received two hours of transferable credit in Math 285. To qualify for tutoring, a student had to get a recommendation from a faculty member who knew the tutor's competence in his subject matter area and who knew the student was dependable. The student was also required to keep a written journal which provided a record of significant tutoring experiences and subject matter for the tutoring seminars.

During each quarter tutors were required to attend nine seminars or nine training sessions with the outside agency in which they were tutoring such as the Vancouver gifted students program or the Vancouver alternative school. The significant fact about this tutoring program was that none of the tutors were paid for their services.

From its conception one year ago, the tutoring program has grown into an elite corps of one hundred four tutors who served Clark College students, the Vancouver Public School system, and other outside agencies over eighteen hundred hours a quarter. Of course, this thriving program was ready-made to serve the sixty-four refugees who were to enroll in the Clark College Southeast Asian Program.

After meeting with Annette during our first week of classes (by this time we had enrolled thirty-five students), we completed our staffing needs for the quarter. Greg Lynn, who was working on a special education

project at Western Washington State College, was assigned to us as our third instructor for which he would receive twelve hours college credit. Brooks Jenkins, a writer and reference librarian at Clark, offered to teach one hour five days a week for the experience, and the remainder of the gaps in our schedule were filled with thirty-seven volunteer students from the tutoring program. With this staff we began our classes, which before the end of the quarter, numbered sixty-four students. At the end of the quarter we had completed three months of intensive education, serving this number of students, on a total budget of $4,478.00.

Our sixty-four students were, indeed, a diversified lot. They ranged in age from eighteen to sixty-nine and in language ability from total illiteracy in all languages to high literacy in several languages, the exception being English. To add to this complexity, we made our program an open door policy which accepted students from all cultures. We eventually ended up with a class consisting of Vietnamese, Cambodians, Laotians, Portugese, Persian, Spanish, Danish, Korean, and Chinese. With the exception of the Vietnamese, Cambodians, and Laotians, however, the other cultures were represented by one or two students. Professionally we had students from every walk of life: a destroyer captain and three of his officers, an obstetrician, a French teacher, a pharmacist, a contractor, a public official, a goldsmith, a carpenter, and housewives were numbered among our students.

MATERIALS

Since we had no budget, we could buy no books, or other learning materials. So, we began our lessons on penmanship paper borrowed from the Learning Resource Center and a set of idioms, flash cards, and mimeographed exercises copied from a diverse supply of grammar books, composition books, and assorted literature and poetry books. Throughout the

quarter this odd assortment ot textbooks, together with borrowed E.S.L. materials from the night program, and a great deal of imagination and resourcefulness by our staff and tutors, furnished us with home-made exercises enough to carry on our program. The beginning students, taught entirely by tutors, began by learning to write and pronounce the alphabet. The intermediate group began with phonics, pronunciation exercises, and pattern sentences. The top group began with common idioms, grammar exercises, and reading tapes from the developmental education program. Since we had no testing materials, we decided where our students were within our wide language spectrum by using the trial and error method. If an exercise worked, we knew we were successful: if it was too difficult, we shared our ideas with the next group up. Of course, we kept a file of all our lessons and by the end of the quarter we had developed a library of materials borrowed from other sources and original materials created by the staff and tutors. These materials were on hand to begin our program winter quarter.

To consolidate our materials and share our ideas during the quarter, we held staff meetings once a week. Here, we shared our successes and failures and coordinated the staff so that we were continually keeping track of ourselves and our materials. At the same time we were reinforcing each new exercise several times by passing our lessons from tutor to tutor, teacher to tutor, or tutor to teacher. Out of necessity the theme for our methods was madness, flexibility and readjustment.

CULTURAL IMPACT MATERIALS

To begin the cultural portion of our program, we drew up a target skill worksheet in which we listed the areas necessary for the students to survive in an alien country. Once we had our target areas, we set about the task of teaching the Vietnamese the living skills that are

necessary for survival and advancement in America. On a simple level, the refugees had to learn how to ride the bus, how to use the telphone, how to deal with money and banking, and how to get medical and dental care. On a more complex level, the refugees had to attain the licenses and certification necessary for some jobs. For example, "teamsters" in Vietnam were required different types of driver's licenses than those issued in the United States. Cosmetologists in Vietnam could practice without a license. Further, our students had to obtain drivers' licenses so that they could make job contacts. Bus systems are inadequate in Clark County for the type of travel necessary to find a job.

The final part of our cultural impact program was an orientation to employment skills and occupations. The refugees who had marketable skills had to prepare themselves for interviews, for filling out applications, for writing job resumes, and for competing with other potential workers for jobs.

They also had to cope with the more abstract employment problems. Some employers are reluctant to hire aliens because they can't speak English well and because they are "foreign." Also, there will be some employers who will try to exploit the refugees. The man with a large family who has no skills may have to settle for a low level job with low wages until he can develop a better skill. However, the man who was an accountant for ten years in Saigon, does not want to wash dishes or be a twenty-four hour domestic. In short, we had to teach the American system as quickly as possible so that wehn the program ended there would be some understanding and some opportunity for our students to find jobs and begin supporting their families adequately without assistance from welfare.

TUONG-LAI
Søren Roegdke
Greg Lynn

To begin our cultural impact program, we included in our language lessons every cultural element about our society that we could devise so that we were teaching English within a practical context. Additionally, we invited speakers from various professions and programs to acquaint the students with their jobs and the institutions they represented.

CONCLUSION

At the end of two quarters, the Clark College Southeast Asian program, with its limited budget and tutor staff, has accomplished the following goals:

Intensive English

a. Refugees met five days a week for instruction to learn spoken English: pronunciation, structure, and idioms.

b. Trained ESL tutors comprised of Clark College students and community volunteers worked individually and collectively with refugees both in the English classes and outside the classroom at the discretion of the student and tutor.

c. Language master tapes, cassette tape players, video tape, and other media were employed to supplement regular instructional methods.

d. Basic reading and writing skills using the Laubach method were taught by staff and trained tutors to prepare students for regular college courses and further studies in developmental reading and writing courses.

Cultural Impact

a. Instructors, tutors, and outside professional people taught basic living skills to facilitate the survival of the refugees in the U.S. These were taught within a framework of basic English skills as well as using forms, kits, and relia from actual agencies such as banks, employment offices, health offices and welfare offices.

b. Tutors working in the actual neighborhoods of the refugees helped them to practice living skills. For example, they taught the families how to read food items in the local paper and how to

select the sale items. They taught them to drive so they could furnish their own transportation to the stores, and they taught them how to use their money in paying for groceries and other services.

c. The tutors and other staff taught them American culture and customs by sharing in holiday projects such as Halloween, Thanksgiving, and Christmas celebrations.

How, however, after two quarters of intensive English and Acculturation, many of our students feel they are ready to train for a particular vocation. To meet these needs, we have redesigned our course to meet five days a week for seven hours a day. The students will study intensive English within the context of job preparation for two hours a day. One hour will be spent in a special class entitled "job-getting orientation," which will be taught by our counseling department at Clark and finally, the students will spend four hours a day actually working in particular vocational areas or with prospective employers. This quarter of on-the-job training is necessary to give the student a more practical, personal goal for which he can work. In short, the student will be more motivated to learn English related to his vocation than English in general.

The vocational interests for our students are as follows:

Accounting	Hotel Work	Photography
Business	Jewelry	Railroad Work
Carpentry	Machine Shop	Secretarial Work
Data Processing	Management	Surveying
Electrical	Mechanics	Welding
Factory Work	Nursing	

This list, if necessary, will be altered to suit the needs of our students, for the willingness to change--with all the risks involved--has been the key ingredient to the success of our program. We feel that

mistakes, changes, successes, failures, and needs are all necessary to our curriculum. For to remain static or to settle on a single method is to neglect the developing student. Education to be effective must be as dynamic as the individual who is being educated.

HUMANISTIC APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE ARTS INSTRUCTION

David N. McCarthy, Ph.D.
Lower Columbia College

We know that a chicken can "learn" to ring a bell if we reward it with a kernel of corn. We know that a dog will "learn" to shake hands, if we reinforce that behavior with food or perhaps, a pat and a positive comment. We know, similarly, that a student will learn to identify an introductory adverbial clause or to recite a poem, if we reinforce his behavior with a good grade and maybe also a smile. The definition of "learning" that I am applying here is this: learning is a change in behavior. Before the learning took place, the individual was not able to exhibit a certain behavior. Afterward, the animal or the student is able to manifest that behavior; therefore, he has learned.

You might object: It's not that simple; there is a lot more involved in human learning than that. For example, human learning would involve writing adverbial clauses properly; it would imply analyzing the content of the poem, and perhaps making a judgment of its literary merit. So, then, the concept "learning," when applied to humans, implies considerably more than a change in behavior.

But let me return to my chicken and dog example for a moment. Is the chicken who can ring the bell for kernels of corn a "better" chicken for the learning? Is the dog a more "complete, more self-fulfilled dog?" Does he relate to the world any differently than before? I would maintain that he may even be less of a dog or a chicken than he was before he learned to shake hands or ring the bell.

And what of the person who can now identify and use adverbial clauses, who can now analyze and evaluate the meaning of a poem? Is he now more

"human?" Is he a "better" person; is he more complete, more self-fulfilled? Does he relate to the world any differently than he did before? In many cases, he is not. In all too many instances he has only changed his behavior. Just like the chicken and the dog.

What is the capitol of Paraguay? When was the Treaty of Utrecht signed? Do you still remember the distance to the moon? You used to know.

But where is it now? If you have lost it, I contend it is because it was never really learned; because really, when you were dealing with it, it didn't make any difference to you. And since it didn't make any difference to you, it didn't make any difference in you--inside you. If learning to use an adverbial clause or analyze a poem does make a difference, it is not because you are now able to do something you couldn't do before. Rather, it is because you have been able to make some connection between the facts and cognitive processes you internalized, and your own self, your own person, your own "reality." So, that real learning, human learning, is not a change in behavior. Rather, it is a change in perception. It's something that takes place "inside" of human beings. Here, then, is where we begin, when we speak of humanistic approaches to language arts instruction. We must begin with the "inside."

There will always be three elements present in classroom learning: the student, the teacher, and the subject matter.

Let us look at this "change in perception" idea first from the standpoint of the student. He sits in class; he "learns" to identify and use adverbial clauses, or how to analyze the imagery in some lines of poetry. And he asks himself, but probably he does not ask the teacher, "But what does this have to do with my life? How is it related to my needs and aspirations and to my own self?" And if he cannot see how it is, then I

maintain that no real learning has taken place here at all--merely a few changes in behavior, merely the acquisition of information and some cognitive skills. And perhaps, perhaps he gets "turned off."

Students don't get turned off to education; they don't drop out because they weren't given information; they get plenty of information. They get turned off because they can't see the relevance. And, if the student cannot see the relevance, then, I must insist, there is no relevance. Real learning, learning which makes a difference, learning which is a change in perception, involves discovering meaning, discovering meaning relevant to the self. Real learning, then, is a deeply personal matter. To humanize the language arts experience is to begin by seeing how things seem to the student.

The teacher gives a writing assignment so that students will learn clear and logical modes of expression. One student really loves writing. He sees the activity as a vehicle for creative expression; another sees it as a tedious game; a third perceives the process as a "typical, worthless, stupid English assignment." He hates it.

Three different realities, three different learning experiences: love, indifference, hate. Strong emotions.

Humanistic approaches to language arts instruction deal with these emotions. And when we start dealing with personal meaningfulness and personal "relevance," when we start dealing with the "inside," feeling will increase as an event becomes closer to the self. For example, suppose you and I are standing on the lawn conversing about tarantulas in a far-off country. I say, "I was just reading of an alarming increase of tarantulas in Texas." (Slight increase of emotion.) Another friend joins us, and says, "The increase is not in Texas, but right here in

Seattle." (Emotions start to pick up) "As a matter of fact," he says, "I just saw one in the lot next door" (your heart beats faster). "Look out, you're going to step on one" (as you jump out of your skin). The closer and more important the event to the self, the more emotion is involved, whether we are dealing with tarantulas, or adverbial clauses, or poems, or essay writing. The closer the meaning to the self, the greater the feeling.

So, feeling and meaning are not unrelated. There can be no thought without some attendant feeling. And if learning is discovering personal meaningfulness, it is going to have some attendant feeling. The only things which arouse no emotions are things which have no personal relevance. You can only be objective about things that don't matter. If it matters, it matters subjectively.

Thus, from the point of view of the student, learning involves the discovery of meaning relative to the self. The more relevant the meaning is, the more emotion will be attached to it. In this learning process, thought and feeling cannot be separated. We have, therefore, got to deal with the student's feelings.

Next, let's look at humanizing learning from the standpoint of the teacher. What does the teacher need to do to humanize the learning experience? First of all, if learning is a change in behavior, teaching is merely arranging the contingencies of reinforcement. If we only want students to come to know the capitol of Paraguay, all we must do is arrange ways to tell them, show them, drill them, test them, and grade them. But if learning is a change in perception, then teaching becomes "facilitating."

What does it mean to "facilitate" learning? Let me give you three

short quotes about teaching from the poet-philosopher Khalil Gibran. He expressed it so much better than I can:

> "The teacher, who walks in the shadow of the temple among his followers, gives not of his wisdom, but rather of his faith and his lovingness."

The real teacher is a real person to and with his students. He has faith in the basic "goodness" of human nature. He is not a faceless embodiment of a system; he is not a sterile tube through which knowledge is passed. When his students miss class he does not say, "Alright you guys, if you don't come to class, I'm going to give you an 'F'." Rather the real teacher says what he really feels: "You know, when you don't come to class, I feel pretty uncertain. I don't know if you're ill, or if the coursework is not valuable to you. Let's talk about it."

Because he avoids the facade and the mask, students trust him. And because they trust him, they are willing to hazard the uncertainty implicit in growth. It is a risky thing to learn, if learning is a change in perception. Because, to perceive differently is to be different, different from how you were before. And it's much nicer, much safer to stay the same. But it's threatening to say, "I don't understand." It's risky to say, "but I see the world differently from how you see it." It's easier to remain the same, following the same patterns and playing the same games.

With an open teacher, the student is going to take that risk. It's not enough to have an open classroom; we've got also to have an open teacher. The open teacher responds to the student the way he is, not the way he would like that student to be.

Respond to the student the way he is. This brings me to my second quote:

> "No man can reveal to you ought, but that which already lies half asleep at the dawning of your own knowledge."

HUMANISTIC APPROACHES TO
LANGUAGE ARTS INSTRUCTION
David N. McCarthy

The teacher who "facilitates learning," reveals to the student what is already there within him. He is like the sculptor who carves the figures of Hercules from the block of marble. If I may quote Liebnitz:

> "The comparison of a block of marble which has veins, rather than a block of marble wholly even, or a blank tablet, that is, what is called among philosophers a tabula raza. For if the soul (and here we may substitute "student") resembled these blank tablets, thoughts would be in us as the figure of Hercules in the marble, when the marble is wholly indifferent to the reception of this figure or some other. But, if there were veins in the block which would indicate the figure of Hercules rather than other figures, this block would be more determined thereto, and Hercules would be in it as in some innate, although it would be needful to labor to discover these veins, to clear them by polishing and by cutting away what prevents them from appearing."[1]

Facilitating learning is helping the student discover the veins; it is clearing and polishing the figure of Hercules which is innate within the marble. It is allowing for the development of and fulfilling of a potential already there.

This brings me to my third quotation about the teacher:

> "If he is indeed wise, he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind."

Where is this "threshold?" Let me give you another example. Give a small child a box of tinker toys. Don't show him how to use them, but just turn him loose with them. It may take him a long time to construct something. When he has done so, he may have developed a generalization, a principle: "Shapes with openings fit together to create new organizations." But, he has learned two things: the principle and, I think even more importantly, the idea of responsibility. He is responsible for what he has done. He did it himself. Give this same child a set of tinker toys, but this time, show him exactly how they work: "This goes

[1] G. W. Leibnitz, New Essays Concerning Human Understanding (Illinois: Open Court, 1949) pp. 45-6.

here, that goes there, and you can fit things together and make larger shapes." He will still in the end, have the same concept. But, what he won't have learned is responsibility.

A teacher, or an educational institution, which requires only that the student come up to its expectations of competance, is not turning out mature individuals. If I say to the student, "These are my expectations, and if you reach them you get an A, and if you only get 90 percent of the way I'll give you a B, and if you only get 80 percent I'll give you a C, I'm telling him what I want him to be. I'm taking the responsibility. Too much of education consists of coming up to somebody else's expectations. The student is learning to behave "as if" he is what he is not. And it's almost as absurd as asking the elephant to behave as if it were a rosebush.

One of the classroom games we play that denies responsibility is the "Guess what's on my mind" game. It goes like this. Suppose we are reading Frost's "Stopping by Woods on a Winter's Evening," and we are "discussing" the lines:

"The Woods are lovely, dark and deep
But I have promises to keep,
And miles to go before I sleep
And miles to go before I sleep."

I say to the class, "What do these lines mean?" Note the word "mean." One student raises his hand and says, "They mean that he has a lot of work to do." And I say, "Well, that's pretty close, but not quite it." A second student raises his hand and says, "They mean that he would like to stay longer in this quiet beauty, but he cannot." And I say, "That's pretty good..." And another student says, "They mean that he would like to die--they are a death wish." And I say, "That's right!! That's it."

What about these other students? Was their meaning wrong? How do they feel? Stupid, less competent? You learn this game in the classroom. You learn there are always three answers: the right answer and the wrong answer. But the best answer is the answer the teacher wants. This game fulfills Paul Tillich's definition of the fatal pedagogical error: "to throw answers like stones at the heads of students who have not even asked questions."

Our classrooms are filled with these phony games, games which deny responsibility, games which create "well-adjusted," smoothly functioning but dead citizens. This is not to say let's quit the games. Rather, let's be aware of the games we are using. Let's give the student a choice.

At this point I have made two major points. From the point of view of the student, learning is the discovery of meaning relevant to the self. And as such, it will involve an effective or emotional, as well as a cognitive or thinking component. Secondly, such learning is "facilitated" by an open teacher: one who is real and who allows the student to take responsibility for his own learning; one who does not throw answers like stones, but rather lets the student discover the figure of Hercules in the marble. We turn next to the subject matter itself.

Any subject matter is going to have within it an affective and a cognitive component. Affect deals with emotions, dispositions, and concerns. Cognition deals with factual knowledge, and formal relationships. It is the discipline in the ways of knowing, involving induction, deduction, and generalization. What we want to do is combine or integrate these components so that they reinforce and support each other.

This process involves integrating the traditional language arts subjects and processes of reading and writing with the students' interests

and concerns. These concerns and interests can be identified generally as identity, connectedness, and power. Identity concerns are related to the person's sense of worth, and they answer the question "Who am I?" and "What am I worth?" Connectedness concerns deal with the person's relationships with others, and answer the questions "To whom do I belong?" and "Who are the significant other persons?" Power issues deal with those behaviors aimed at providing the person with a sense of influence over his own life and environment: "How do I get more control over what I do?"

Above all else, it is language which makes man different from other living creatures. To be human is to think and feel through language. A humanistic approach to language arts instruction merely takes cognizance of this simple truth.

It would perhaps be instructive to close this paper by asking one of my own questions: How is all of this discussion of humanism relevant to education today in the community college? Students come to us, and they say, "Give me some skills." They don't say, "I want to be humanized; I want to be self-actualized; I want to achieve my human potential." They say, "I want to get a job. I want some training." And I would agree. We need training. But we also need more. Training gives the student the tools and skills he needs to go out and to fit into a pre-determined slot in society. Training is the ability to apply the rules, but without questioning the reasons. Training involves acquiring skills and some cognitive knowledge. But training is only a change in behavior. We can give our students training--we can teach them the skills of writing and reading. But we can in the same lessons, and at the same time, give them the ability to deal rationally with their own selves. We can engender awareness, self-knowledge, and responsibility, while teaching reading,

writing, and grammar.

This, then, is what I mean by "humanistic" when applied to language arts instruction. And such an approach is not anti-intellectual. On the contrary, it seeks realistically to make intelligence functional. Such a posture is concerned with discovery, caring and personal meaning, not just because that is a nice way to live, but rather because it is the hard-headed, necessary road to producing the kinds of people we want and need.

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